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The
JOURNAL OF
EDUCATIONAL
SOCIOLOGY

Contribution of Sociology to Education

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FEBRUARY 1939

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The JOURNAL of EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

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No. 6

SOCIOLOGY AND EDUCATION

E. GEORGE PAYNE

The value of sociology as a study for those entering the profession of education has been a subject of discussion during the past half century and yet there is no consensus of opinion as to what kind of sociology is desirable, or even as to whether sociology is an important study for those who are preparing for some phase of educational work or for those already engaged in some sort of educational endeavor. The reasons for this confused situation are too numerous and too complex to include in an article of such limited space as we have at our disposal. An adequate explanation of the present opinions about and attitudes toward the worth or lack of value of sociology in the field of education would require a volume that would survey the whole history of sociology from its beginning to the present.

However, the point of view we wish to present requires at least a partial explanation of the reason for this confusion. In 1893 William T. Harris said: "No philosophy of education is sound unless based upon sociology." This is a typical view held by many sociologists and educators of the time when only three or four of our universities offered courses in sociology and the subject was not found in the curriculum of any of the normal schools. Sociology

was in its infancy. Moreover, sociology during this period was anything that the particular professor chose to make it. At Yale it was Spencer interpreted by Sumner; at Brown, it was Ward who developed a brand of his own; at Columbia, it was Giddings who explained association on the basis of consciousness of kind; and, at Chicago, it was Small with a brand that differed from all the rest. In spite of the wide differences among these scholars, there was a common denominator; namely, each developed a social philosophy arrived at through armchair speculation. The inevitable result of study and the educational and social backgrounds of the various sociologists was a different social philosophy for each, and those who sought to apply the various social philosophies to education found themselves in as much disagreement as their masters, the sociologists themselves.

The twentieth century witnessed the emergence of a new approach to the study of social phenomena, an objective approach in which the student gathers data of group behavior, classifies it, and derives principles which may be used in interpreting new social situations; in a word, sociology has adopted the scientific method. The scientific emphasis of sociology is recognized by the physical scientists as illustrated by Julian Huxley's illuminating discussion on the subject: "Can Sociology Become a Science."¹ He says:

The moral for social science is clear. The idea of exploring, understanding, and controlling man's social environment and his own nature is now in the air, just as was after the Renaissance the idea of exploring, understanding, and controlling nonhuman nature and man's external environment. The present interest in sociology is an outcome of this more general tendency. But before it can fully merit the name of science, it needs development in three interrelated ways. It needs to formulate its special methods; it needs able brains working at its fundamental problems and discovering its principles; and, just as natural science needs completion through military, industrial, agricultural, and medical applications, so too social science needs practical outlet in application by means of social experiment.

¹ *The Saturday Review of Literature*, XII: 13 (July 27, 1935), p. 4.

Sociology in its application to education has gradually moved from the beginning toward the realization of these needs. The concluding statement of a recent discussion of the researches in educational sociology indicates this tendency:

It is clearly evident that a group of educational sociologists is working earnestly to make of their chosen field a science and, through their research, to gather data and make their methods objective. What is not evident from the data here presented, but is more important, is the trend of educational sociology in the past few years that has indicated an increased tendency toward objectivity, toward refinement of method in accordance with scientific techniques, and toward a definition of problems in terms of the measurement of the results of educational processes for social efficiency. In general, there has been a decline in the uncritical use of old-fashioned questionnaires and in the choice of subjects of research projects involved in the use of purely secondary sources. The tendency has been, moreover, away from opinion toward fact, and there has been a definite move to discard naïve methods in favor of controlled and validated techniques, and, furthermore, away from the bookish type of study toward the more vital topics involved in education.

The trend has been in the direction of regarding educational sociology as belonging to the field of sociology rather than to education, and to use the better techniques of the sociologist in educational research. The research, also, fortunately, has not been limited strictly to the field of school education, but has more and more extended to the sphere of nonschool educational agencies and the influence of social backgrounds in the development of personality, always, of course, with the thought in mind of the relation of these agencies and backgrounds to the school and its problems.

A survey of the researches in educational sociology in the past decade promises a marked development in the future and a contribution to education of the most significant kind.²

The discussion so far leads to a definite conclusion about sociology as an applied science for the educator. Sociology has advanced sufficiently as a science to warrant us in saying that no adequate educational program can be constructed, no educational procedure

²E. George Payne, *Readings in Educational Sociology* (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1934), Vol. II, p. 732.

can be justified, and no educational techniques can be effective if the scientific data provided by sociology are omitted from consideration. This point of view has been basic to the development of the program of sociology in the School of Education at New York University.

Basic to the program of sociology as developed has been a definite conception of education which may be summarized as follows: Education is a process by which behavior changes are made in individuals or in groups. This concept of education implies that changes are made in behavior through the acquisition of habits, knowledges, and attitudes but the emphasis in this definition is placed upon behavior because of our desire to be objective. This definition also involves not only changes in individual behavior but likewise changes in group behavior; that is, changes in the behavior patterns that characterize the group.

It is obvious that all behavior is individual but there are patterns of behavior that characterize groups, such as the folkways, conventions, customs, and also a variety of attitudes and sentiments that find expression through mores and institutions.

It is well to note here that sociology is not the only science that may be called upon to explain behavior or to provide principles basic to a program of education. Behavior is obviously determined primarily by the structure of the organism of the individual and his inheritances. For an explanation of the extent to which these are factors in the explanation of behavior we must turn to biology. Likewise, psychology has much to say in explanation of behavior and in the determination of an educational program, because psychology is concerned with the mental activities and their development and the way they express themselves in the individual's life. Sociology, however, has a different function; namely, that of determining how the factors in the social environment—our material and nonmaterial culture—condition the behavior of individuals and groups. An understanding of the extent to which this is true and

how behavior is conditioned by these factors is basic to any sort of an adequate educational program.

Furthermore, educational sociology, as we have conceived it, involves research into the cultural and social background both as to their effect upon the developing personality and the extent to which they must be taken into account in the construction and operation of an educational program. With these basic conceptions we have required of all students, who have expected to enter the educational profession, a minimum knowledge of the field and function of sociology and the techniques of its scientific approach to the problems of education. The purpose of sociology or a required subject in the New York University School of Education is explained in a report as follows:

Sociology is a distinctive field of study. It includes a factual analysis of personality growth and development as influenced by all of the agencies of education, both informal and formal. In this objective study it recognizes the contributions of the subjective approach through philosophy and the individualistic emphasis of psychology, but is primarily concerned with a third approach: the influence of cultural and group factors upon personality and social control. This aspect of education has been almost if not completely neglected in the programs of education, even in our most progressive schools.

It should be noted here, what is now accepted by thinkers in all these fields, that personality grows out of situations to which the individual responds. No understanding of the educational process is possible without an evaluation of the relative effect, more or less scientifically determined, of all the situations that impinge upon the individual in his group contacts, whether those are in school, in the family, in the neighborhood, in the community, or in other situations to which the individual is exposed. While philosophy and psychology involve the situation as here conceived, they have neither the technique nor the function to deal with them as required in the complex educational process. The problem of education in modern society requires a socio-scientific approach for its solution which only sociology is in a position to make. We regard this as the most important contribution to be made to education at the present time.

Specifically, we are concerned with the various factors in the community which account for the behavior of children, and which must be understood in detail before the school can intelligently make its contribution to the total personality of the individual. Such sociological data as relate to cultural backgrounds and changes, especially in racial, familial, and ecological areas, are indispensable foundations if the school is to concern itself with utilizing community forces and assets in meeting social needs that affect the adjustment of individuals. We are, therefore, concerned with the techniques that must be used in getting at the basic factors and situations that are responsible for personality and the relation of the school program to them. None of our school programs, except theoretically, take these situations into account, and are not equipped to do so. The techniques and methods in the classroom can never be adapted to children without knowing in detail the specific needs of children in terms of their environment and background. No amount of excursion into the environment can equip the prospective teacher with the knowledge and technique necessary for the complex task of education, unless that individual has developed an objective basis against which to evaluate such experiences and to see them in the light of the total environmental pattern.

An example will illustrate what we have in mind. The newest course of study in health, of which New York City is an example, takes account of the aims of education as conceived by modern philosophy. It takes account of child nature as understood by the psychologist; it also takes account of the scientific knowledge relating to the factors involved in health, such as diet, recreation, sleep, rest, etc. It does not take account of the needs of children in terms of their background. Thus we have an ideally constructed program in operation without reference to the specific needs of the children involved. In spite of the fact that health conditions vary enormously in different school districts and, therefore, the emphasis should be totally different, the emphasis is essentially the same because the school has left out of account the important variable; *i.e.*, the health conditions. These vary as to mortality, infant mortality, morbidity, types of ailments, the causes of ailments, the factors of air, sunlight, play space, and other elements too numerous to mention.

The growing realization that the school program is valuable only to the extent that it helps pupils adjust to their group situations and requirements and assists in bringing about desirable social change makes the contributions of sociology of increasing importance in the curriculum,

the method, the organization and administration, and the community relationships and services of the school.

Sociology provides the knowledge and the techniques necessary for the educator to take account of the numerous background factors relating both to normal or typical situations and to social maladjustments, such as delinquency, crime, and other conflicts between individuals and groups. Only by a searching analysis of that which is typical can a basis be established for an understanding of all types of behavior. The social processes which lead to social control are developed inductively through a thorough treatment of their operation in the complex and changing cultural environment of the family, the play group, the community, and the non-formal agencies of education. These social processes are then analyzed in their relation to the many functions of the school: character development, health, curriculum, method, and school-community relationships.

No other subject in the teacher-training program is concerned with these areas of study in the same way and with the same approach as sociology and educational sociology. Without adequate sociological knowledge and experience there is a definite gap in the training of both the prospective and in-service teacher. The increasing emphasis upon the sociological approach to modern problems makes it all the more imperative that this course be retained as a requirement for all teachers.

The development of a program of sociology in education has led to a variety of researches and a program of courses in a number of fields. We do not wish to imply that we have covered the whole field of sociological emphasis in relation to education, but we wish merely to list certain emphases which will be developed in other articles. These are as follows:

1. The sociological clinic
2. Problems in community coördination
3. Problems in community background
4. Problems of public health

SOCIOLOGY AND INTERCULTURAL UNDERSTANDING

FRANCIS J. BROWN

The study of cultural differences has been one of the major areas of sociological research. In fact, social or cultural anthropology was one of the first fields of descriptive analysis. Earlier writers such as Tylor, Morgan, Fraser, and Bachofen (family culture patterns) emphasized similarities, gradual change, and the evolutionary character of these patterns. Later students from Boaz to Mead gave major emphasis to dissimilarities and diversity of the culture groups.¹

The application of intelligence tests to the field of racial and cultural groups by Garth, Brigham, Pintner, and many more gave apparent objectivity to group differences. With little variation in the various studies the Nordic groups were superior in I.Q., the Slavic groups inferior, and the Negro the lowest in general intelligence.

Tacitly accepting the findings of social anthropology and psychology the major social processes emphasized in discussions of culture patterns were "isolation," "conflict," and "assimilation." The first analyzed the folkways, *mores*, and institutions as divisive factors which developed a sense of cultural ethnocentrism. The second included the study of causes and forms of conflict between these plurality patterns of behavior. In earlier writings such conflict was supported by the instinct theory; that is, that there was an innate pugnaciousness which led to opposition of those who were not of the "in-group." Later it was based upon the overrated particularist theory of Giddings, "consciousness of kind."

The third social process, "assimilation," implies that cultural differences will disappear and leave, within a given area or nation, a common culture. This has been the assumption of the "melting-pot" theory regarding American immigrants although not applied

¹ W. I. Thomas has brought together the summarized finding of more than five hundred such studies in *Primitive Culture* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1937).

to racial groups (using the term in its strict sense), except by a very few who have advocated intermarriage between racial groups.

Several recent developments in sociology have begun a distinct shift of point of view. One is an increasing emphasis, well illustrated in the work of Becker, Wirth, and others, upon the irrational character of conflict. Doob, Lumley, and Lasswell, to name only a few of the many writers, have analyzed the susceptibility of individuals to the many organized agencies of propaganda and the highly irrational character of such propaganda. With a growing realization that conflict attitudes are not inherent in the fact of culture differences a foundation is laid for social adjustment.

A second development bearing upon intercultural differences is the recent emphasis upon "stereotypes." Bogardus, using his "social-distance" test, found that individuals tend to think of other individuals as belonging to a class or caste rather than considering them as individuals. Young² graphically describes these stereotypes as "pictures in our heads which may be definite mental images or verbal characterizations. They are shortcuts to conclusions. . . . Popular notions of group traits are never accurate either in detail or in broad outline." Lasker illustrates by many specific examples that younger children do not possess these generalized concepts; that they are only in the adult pattern of behavior, and are acquired by children through their acceptance of adult attitudes.³ Thus small children play freely together, totally unaware of any social implications of observable differences of race or nationality, but become conscious of their social import through the acceptance of adult stereotypes implied in such phrases as "Nigger," "Kike," or "Wop."

The third development in intercultural relations has been the growing recognition that assimilation is a slow and resistant process and that a sound basis of adjustment must recognize the perpetuation of cultural differences but with a minimizing of conflict.

² Donald Young, *American Minority Peoples* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1932), pp. 11-12.

³ Bruno Lasker, *Race Attitudes in Children* (New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1929).

Eaton's *Immigrant Gifts to American Life* beautifully summarizes the contributions that those of many culture groups have made to America. The development of folk arts, national and racial museums, folk dancing, and the perpetuation of the foreign press (several are now written in English but for their own former foreign-language group) all are expressions of this awakening interest in intercultural activities. The most significant recent development in this field is the present series of radio broadcasts, "Americans All, Immigrants All." This is a series of twenty-six dramatic broadcasts over a national hook-up designed to show contributions of various cultural groups to the social, economic, and political development of the United States. They are presented by the Department of the Interior, Office of Education, and Columbia Broadcasting System, with the coöperation of the Service Bureau for Intercultural Education and with the assistance of the Works Progress Administration.

Elsewhere, the author has termed this newer emphasis "cultural pluralism." This implies both the perpetuation of the folk culture of the many racial and national groups in American life and the growing appreciation by every group of the contributions which each has made to the kaleidoscopic culture of America.

In the above analysis it has been impossible to do more than sketch in a few of the changing emphases of sociology in the study of cultural differences. The present emphasis may be illustrated by a summary of the activities of the School of Education department of educational sociology at New York University.

The department has long recognized that a knowledge of the cultural background of the child is essential to the successful teacher. Courses on immigrant backgrounds have been supplemented by others in community analysis. Four years ago a course on "Racial Contributions to American Life" was initiated. The first term is devoted to the contributions of the Negro, the second to those

⁴F. J. Brown and J. S. Roucek, *Our Racial and National Minorities* (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1937).

of other racial groups. The course in "Education in Human Relations" has been primarily an analysis of the social philosophy and methods of intercultural education. The major emphasis of the course in "Nationalism and Education" is a study of the many irrational factors in the development of national groups and the agencies through which they are transmitted and intensified. To meet the growing interest in this field, a definite program of courses has been arranged for 1938-1939. This includes, in addition to the courses above, one on contributions of national culture groups and another dealing specifically with techniques of intercultural education.

One concrete experiment in this field is the growth of culture groups as integral units within the Educational Sociology Club. Firmly believing that a program of intercultural education was possible and desirable among the students of the School of Education, four culture groups have been organized to date—Spanish, Italian, Ukranian, and Negro. In every instance, the initiative came from the group itself. The president of each group is ex officio vice-president of the Educational Sociology Club. The budget of each culture group is distinct but is allotted to it through the funds appropriated by the Student Council for the Club. Each group has its own program of socials and speakers. A few of the meetings are open only to their own members to provide the necessary sense of autonomy of the group; others are open to all of the members of the Club to provide the desirable intermingling of the groups. Each year all the groups unite to give a program known as "Cultural Mosaics." This program, portraying the contributions of each cultural group, is open to the entire student body and to the general public.

It is difficult to measure the result of such an organization. It is now in its sixth year. There is little doubt but that it has been a cogent influence in developing a sincere appreciation of the culture of each group by all of the members of the larger organization and by the student body. Certainly it is a practical demonstration of the meaning and feasibility of "cultural pluralism."

PROGRESS IN COMMUNITY COÖRDINATION

JULIUS YOURMAN

There has been a spontaneous movement in American communities, especially during the last four years, to coördinate the services and planning of agencies and individuals concerned with the solution of social problems. This movement has been accelerated by the obvious pressures and interrelationships of the problems of delinquency, health, housing, education, recreation, relief, taxation, and government; by the extension of public interest and public agencies concerned with the solution of these problems; and by the apparent overlapping and competition among the various interests and agencies in the community. Particularly significant are the new emphases on general community participation in place of professional agency control, and on neighborhood organization in addition to more centralized planning and direction. These emphases are important as symptoms of a growing effectiveness of the democratic procedure. Equally significant is the increasing dependence on community research as the basis of coördinated planning and action.

The interest and support of national and local organizations for community coördination are revealed in the policies, publications, and activities of social agencies, schools, parents' associations, service clubs, churches, women's clubs, youth organizations, civic clubs, and governmental branches. Basic questions of initiation, organization, support, leadership, and activities of coördination are still unanswered in the development and literature of the field, but conferences, research, and experimentation necessary to answer these questions already have been started.

The surveys of the National Probation Association¹ focused atten-

¹ *Community Approach to Delinquency Prevention*, 1937; *Community Coördination for Social Progress*, 1938 (New York: National Probation Association, 50 West 50th Street), 50 cents each.

tion on the number and variety of community coördination projects; the efforts of councils of social agencies to encompass private, public, lay, and professional organizations and agencies have accelerated the movement;² the widespread extension and participation in Federal and local adult forums have stimulated communities to experiment with coördinating projects;³ and the realization by an increasing number of schools of their social function and the need for their participating in or initiating community-wide action to determine and meet the undesirable influences on the development of children have led to the establishment of new programs and new patterns of coördinated community research, planning, and service, as well as new social emphases in their objectives, curricula, methods, services, organization, and measurement of the results of education.⁴

In the far west, leadership is being provided by Coördinating Councils, Inc., an organization established July 15, 1938, under the Rosenberg Foundation of Los Angeles to continue the pioneering work of the first coördinating council at Los Angeles and the subsequent services, since December 1935, of the National Probation Association. This new centralizing body conducts regional conferences and seeks:

1. To serve as a clearing house of information on studies being made in this field in the various sections of the country
2. To facilitate the exchange of studies among those most interested
3. To promote studies of various types of councils seeking to raise the standards of community life through coöperative efforts

² *An Interim Report of The Six Town Plan for a Community-Wide Attack on Social Ills* (Elizabeth, N. J.: The Central Planning Board of the Council of Social Agencies, 1938), one dollar.

³ *Choosing Our Way* (thirty-five cents) and *Low Cost Forums for Smaller Communities* (free) (Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1937).

⁴ "Schools and Communities," *Progressive Education*, XV: 2 (February 1938); Lloyd Allen Cook, *Community Backgrounds of Education* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1938); Samuel Everett, editor, *The Community School* (New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1938).

4. To make the results of the studies accessible through the magazine *Community Coördination*,⁵ or to publish separate pamphlets

5. To circulate annually a questionnaire among all the coördinating and neighborhood councils in the country, this annual survey to succeed the studies made in the past three years by the National Probation Association

In the east, the department of educational sociology of New York University School of Education and THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY, both under the leadership of Dr. E. George Payne, have become important instruments in the development of the coördination movement. Many of the outstanding community programs in this area have been developed with the guidance of students and faculty members of the department.⁶ THE JOURNAL has acted as a clearing house in the following special issues:

February 1936—Schools That Serve the Community

April 1936—Education and the Community

September 1936—Community Coördination and Social Progress

March 1937—Community Agencies and Character Growth

October 1937—Proceedings: Northeastern Conference on Community Coördination

January 1938—The Yonkers Plan of Community Coördination

April 1938—Coöperation of Schools and Community Agencies

In April 1937, THE JOURNAL, in response to many requests, called together a program committee of representative leaders of several types of communities and many areas of special service to conduct a conference on community coördination. It was the purpose of this conference to have "experts" meet to exchange their experiences

⁵ Issued bimonthly by the Executive Board, Los Angeles County Coordinating Councils, sponsored by Rotary Club of Los Angeles. Published at 139 North Broadway, Los Angeles, Cal., fifty cents a year, beginning January 1939.

⁶ Special courses in community problems and organization offered in 1938-1939 are: The Community: Organization and Coördination; Survey Techniques; The Community-Centered School, Its Development and Function; Education in Human Relations; Sociology of the Community in Relation to Education; The Social Backgrounds of the School Child; Juvenile Delinquency and Crime Prevention; The Motion Picture: Its Artistic, Educational, and Social Aspects; Racial Contributions to American Culture.

and problems to help each other and less experienced community leaders. It was hoped that the coöperative thinking of the coördinators with diverse institutional backgrounds and viewpoints might clarify misunderstandings. A panel session was planned and conducted with this purpose in mind. The conference proceedings were published in the October 1937 issue of *THE JOURNAL*.

The conference voted to continue as an annual service, and the department of educational sociology sponsored the Second Annual Conference on Problems in Community Coördination on December 3, 1938. The proceedings will be published in an early issue of *THE JOURNAL*. At this second conference it was decided to continue the annual consideration of problems and progress, to investigate and initiate the establishment of a clearing house for research, and to coöperate with Coördinating Councils, Inc., of Los Angeles.

In response to the revealed need for a local research headquarters, the department of educational sociology will establish the Social Clinic for Community Research and Service under the directorship of Professor Frederic M. Thrasher.

From spontaneous sporadic efforts the trend toward coördinated community thinking, planning, and action seems to be crystallizing into a vital, sound, self-directing social pattern that will affect the organization, efficiency, and happiness of an increasing number of American communities. For sociologists it offers a rich laboratory, an opportunity, and a challenge. For educators it offers the mechanism by which the community can visualize and meet its total responsibility in education. For government it promises an era of more intelligent interest, participation, service, and supervision by larger numbers of citizens.

SOCIOLOGY AND SOCIAL WORK

RHEA KAY BOARDMAN

Until the middle of the nineteenth century the public schools of this country thought of education as material that could be "graded" and then dispensed to groups of thirty pupils or more at the same time. Late in the last century, educators began to discuss individual differences and for the next twenty-five or thirty years emphasis was placed upon the physical, mental, and social progress of the individual. In some instances during this period of individualization, it has seemed as if the fact that the pupil was a member of a group, that he would continue to live in a group, and that he would ultimately succeed or fail as a result of his adjustment to his group had been forgotten.

During this latter period, sociology, educational sociology, and social case work have come to the fore. These fields have contributed to the philosophy and methods of education. The history of these related fields is interesting. They are closely interrelated in their basic interests. The field of social work, however, is older than the other two. The distributing of charity dates back to ancient times and ancient philosophers were cognizant of the evils of almsgiving.

In Athens, when a "poor tax" was levied, Aristotle was concerned and advocated that small parcels of land should be given to each poor family. He felt that this would tend to make the family more self-respecting. Jewish synagogues were the first centers for the distribution of alms and the Hebrew Commonwealth made constructive provision for the care of the poor. The Christian churches as they were established followed the example of the Jews. One of the first officers to be appointed in the primitive Christian church was the "deacon," whose chief duty it was to look after the poor of the church.¹

¹ John Lewis Gillan and Frank W. Blackmar, *Outlines of Sociology* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1936), third edition.

The people of ancient nations were troubled with many of the same problems that confront us now. There were those who believed that poverty was a personal problem and that the godly and thrifty were never in need because God provided for his followers. Others believed that alms should only be dispensed by the state. Many of the wealthy citizens looked upon the disbursement of charity as a part of their life work. They had amassed fortunes and enjoyed bestowing money, food, and clothes upon the needy. The philosophers felt that these methods were not satisfactory and that the causes of poverty had their roots deep in the economic and social conditions of the nation.

In ancient Rome there were complaints that the rich and the noble maintained their power through political position, the former using their money to buy votes. It has been estimated that at the time of Augustus more than 580,000 persons received relief in the city of Rome alone. The annual distribution from Nero's time to the end of Servus's reign rose to the value of \$1,500,000. This vast amount of relief was disbursed by the officials representing the state.

The early Christian church was concerned with a problem which we hear discussed today. The church stated that relief should be separated from the state and that the church should be the agency to which the needy and afflicted should apply for succor. With all due respect to the early church, it must be said that its part in the program was to some extent a selfish one. The church realized that it would be able to get more converts if it could help people who were sick and poor. The individual members of the church also felt that they could be more sure of the "life everlasting" if they gave some of their worldly goods to the poor. The state was only too glad to have the church relieve it of some of its burden and as a consequence an increasing number turned to the church. In time, however, the churches found that they were carrying a terrific load and asked the state and community to help them financially.

When the first settlers came to this country, they brought with

them the ideas and ideals of Europe. The early groups of colonists had common interests and customs and, as a result, the ills and misfortunes of their colony were considered a common problem. As each section of the country was settled, methods of caring for the needy were formulated by the group in its own way. However, the methods used were based upon the methods that had been used in the countries from which they came. It was not until the population of the United States had greatly increased and the unity of the early groups had been displaced by the newer generations that the churches and other community organizations began to realize that there must be a more unified program introduced for the care of the "paupers" of the country.

At this time England was struggling with its relief problem. Its "out-relief" had been a failure. Germany also had become aware that her plans had been futile. About 1765, a German, Professor Busch, devised a new system in Hamburg, Germany. He divided the city into districts with an overseer in each district. The enumeration of the city poor was kept in a central bureau. Industrial schools were established in which those asking for relief were registered for vocational training. A system for scheduling relief, not unlike our present emergency relief budget system, was introduced. The social workers were called "almoners" and were expected to visit the homes of the clients and report their findings back to the district office. This system is still used in the larger cities of Germany.

The other countries of Europe watched this Hamburg-Elberfeld system with great interest and as a result many of them revised their own programs. The first English Charity Organization Society was incorporated in 1869 in London. In 1877 the first American Charity Organization Society was established in Buffalo, New York. The basic principles of this organization were taken from the Hamburg-Elberfeld system.

The social workers had become increasingly aware of the fact that

many undeserving persons were receiving aid and that charity as it had been given was often destructive from the point of view of permanent rehabilitation. Up to this time, however, no concerted effort had been made to survey the different communities in order that data might be assembled upon which further study could be made. The "case-study method" had been adopted by Harvard Law School about 1870, as a device for training law students. "It is reported that the oldest known case study is a record of child placement, presumably made about 4000 B.C."² The medical profession had also begun to use this method. The social-work agencies had used the case-study method in their work not only in the training of students but as a technique in planning and treating their clients.

During the latter part of the nineteenth century the sociologists were increasing their efforts to study society. They tried to define their field, and such definitions as the following were given: A science of social relationship, a study of men considered as affecting and as affected by association, the study of human associations, etc. Professor Giddings's definition is probably the most comprehensive: "Sociology is an attempt to account for the origin, growth, structure, and activities of society by the operation of physical, vital, and psychological causes working together in the process of evolution." Along with these attempts to define the field of sociology, the sociologist studied the meaning of such terms as society, community, and neighborhood. Gillan and Blackmar³ state that "the purpose of sociology is, first, to understand society; then, to enable us to formulate a scientific program of social betterment." They state further that the fundamental problem of sociology is to establish the correct conception of the origin, structure, and activities of society. From this it will be seen that the fields of sociology and social work were from the beginning closely correlated in their interest to study and plan for a better program of social relationship.

² Arthur E. Traxler, *Case Study Procedures in Guidance* (New York: Educational Records Bureau, 1937).

³ Gillan and Blackmar, *op. cit.*

About 1890, Dr. W. T. Harris suggested that sociology be applied to education. He stated that "No philosophy of education is sound . . . unless based upon sociology."⁴ Dr. E. George Payne defines educational sociology as "the science which describes and explains institutions, social forms, and social processes; that is, the social relationships in which and through which the individual gains and organizes his experiences. These social interdependencies include not merely those in which the individual gains and organizes his experience as a child, but also those in which he must function in adult life. Furthermore, they are regarded particularly in relation to the educational system in its evolution and changing function."⁵

Although interest was shown in the correlation of sociology to education at the turn of the century, it was not until 1916 that the first survey directed to educational sociology was made. "This survey sought to determine the status of the subject in the city training center schools of the United States. Educational sociology was defined, as 'that science which describes and explains the institutions and social forms through which the child gains and organizes his experience, and those institutions and social forms in relation to which the child must function in his adult life.'"

Thus it is clear that sociology, educational sociology, and social case work were working on the same problems but that each was approaching the problems from somewhat different angles. There does not seem to be any reason why members of these three fields should spend much time in the discussion as to which one is the most necessary. They have each contributed to the knowledge which is necessary if the youth of the present generation is to grow up in our civilization and become happy and effective citizens.

Perhaps sociology was somewhat too broad in its study to lend

⁴ *Educational Review*, vol. VI (1893), p. 84.

⁵ E. George Payne, *Readings in Educational Sociology* (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1932), vol. I, p. 22.

⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 4.

itself to the analysis and treatment of individuals who were in need. Educational sociology was emphasizing education, formal and informal, and social case work was directly applying the knowledge of all three fields in analyzing and following-up definite problems referred to it. Ten years ago one common criticism of sociology and educational sociology was that they made studies and analyzed their findings but they never applied these to anything in particular. This criticism is seldom heard at the present time. It is realized now that the findings of these fields have given the social case workers much more material than they could have assembled by their methods of work upon specific cases which had been referred to them. The individual or the family that comes to the social case-work agency has reached a situation where it has to depend upon a community organization for assistance. Therefore, a study of their cases is actually only a study of those who have succumbed to the problems of our civilization. The social worker must have the studies of the communities in general in order that he may be able to contrast those with which he works with the population in general.

At the present time sociology, educational sociology, and social case work are correlating their findings and it is a recognized fact that education is the most vital force in our country. The medical profession was one of the first to state this publicly. Dr. Haven Emerson stated in a public address soon after the turn of the century that the medical field had gone about as far as it could; that health should be considered a community affair. This statement aroused much comment because health conditions prior to that time had been considered personal affairs. It was not long before the communities took up the challenge and made their premise felt—that the spread of contagion and infection could be handled only by a concerted community program.

It is still difficult for some people to realize that such problems as

poverty, dependency, and delinquency are community problems. The sociologists and educational sociologists have been trying to explain that poor housing, interstitial areas, and the conflict of cultural patterns are at the bottom of much of the unhappiness and failure. The social workers now agree that their work with individuals would be futile if the communities did not become conscious of their part in the treatment and prevention of these problems. The three fields have continued concurrently. Sociology has contributed to the field of social work by emphasizing the larger implications of the conflicts and changing mores of society. Educational sociology has contributed to social work by emphasizing the need for sociology in the schools. The visiting-teacher program introduced by the National Committee of Visiting Teachers was the first concerted effort to make a place for social case work in the schools. The social-work field has contributed to the other fields through its case studies of unfortunate individuals who have applied to them for assistance.

The School of Education of New York University, recognizing the importance of correlating the findings and techniques of these three fields, has planned curricula that will enable the teachers, nurses, school counselors, and social workers to become familiar with these three groups. Introductory courses in social case work are offered on the undergraduate level. It is conceded that the aim of all education should be that every individual should have an opportunity to profit from the studies made in sociology, educational sociology, and social work. All education is guidance and guidance can only become effective when those who are working with individuals become aware of their place in education and the relationship of their work to that of other professions.

A constructive guidance program is a preventive program. The teacher is in a position, first, to note problems as they arise; second, to note changes in behavior; third, to be able to guide and advise those students who can profit by such assistance without the help of

specialists; fourth, to report the difficult problems to doctors, psychologists, and psychiatrists; and, fifth, to be able to follow the suggestions of specialists.

The services of nurses are increasingly required in out-patient clinics, schools, settlements, and public-health departments. They use social-case-work methods in their work and the introductory courses are designed to meet the requirements of their curricula.

The standards for social case work have been raised during recent years. Many persons who entered the social-case-work field before the requirements were changed find themselves in difficulty. They are not admitted to the graduate schools of social work until they have received their undergraduate degree; therefore, many of them are unable to register in the professional school. Again, the courses in social case work are of great help to them in meeting the requirements for certification for civil service.

During the past three years students who have graduated from law schools have registered for courses in educational sociology and social case work. They feel that they need this background for their work in the courts and in cases pertaining to domestic relations. This is a hopeful sign. When each professional group recognizes the limits and area of his field and its relationship to other professions, greater unity will prevail and more permanent individual adjustment will be made.

SOCIOLOGY IN THE CLINIC

HARVEY ZORBAUGH

The past twenty-five years have witnessed a great change in the behavior of sociologists. A quarter of a century ago the majority of sociologists might fairly have been labeled either philosophers or reformers. They dreamed on the one hand of cosmic cycles in the affairs of men; on the other hand, of utopia realized on earth. Today the great majority of sociologists—at least of the younger generation of sociologists—are scientists, attempting to develop methodology and techniques which will yield a greater understanding of, and, we may hope, control over man's social behavior.

Many factors inherent in the cultural trends of our generation have contributed to this change. It has not been the result of sociological thought alone, much less the achievement of a particular "school" of sociology. On the other hand, it was at the University of Chicago, in the graduate department of sociology, in the decade following the war, that the sociologist's changed conception of his role was first clarified and began to yield fruit in the type of research now characteristic of sociological science.

The sociology department of the University of Chicago was an exciting intellectual atmosphere to the graduate students of that decade. The older concept of sociology was represented in the person of Albion Small, head of the department, then in the last years of his notable career. The emerging concept of sociology as science was represented by Robert E. Park and Ernest W. Burgess. In his first year the student came under the influence of both points of view.

Small was a scholar, in the finest sense of the word. He took the student through the history of sociological thought, requiring that the student document his progress as he went. Small was a logician as well. He insisted that the student should, if he could, reason his way through the documentary evidence. Small, the logician, strove

to force the student to clarify and sharpen his conceptual tools, giving the student a rigorous exercise in semantics. Small was, furthermore, a philosopher, and strove to stimulate his students, through their study of the history of society, to achieve a valid philosophy and valid values of their own.

Park and Burgess, on the other hand, demanded that the student apply his developing sociological concepts to an analysis of the behavior of the community about him. Park, impatient with the older sociological theory, was on fire with belief that sociology could become, was becoming a natural science. Park had a tremendously original mind, a rare ability to stimulate the minds of his students, and to transmit to them his enthusiasm. Park was, moreover, intellectually the most generous of men. His ideas were his students' ideas. He asked only that his students put them to work. All of his students would admit that credit for whatever contributions they have made to sociology must be shared with Park.

Park's mind, on the other hand, was largely intuitive. Science was, to him, a burning ideal and a way of thought rather than a methodology. It was Burgess who kept the student face to face with the necessity of working out an adequate and valid methodology for attacking his problems. It was to Burgess students turned over and over for methodological criticism and help. It was due to Burgess's originality and generosity that many of their projects bore fruit. Every student who has gone out of the University of Chicago to make a place for himself in sociological research owes much to Burgess for the discipline necessary to make research fruitful.

Students reacted differently to this intellectual atmosphere, according to their differences in temperament and experience. Many and heated were the debates that went on, among graduate students, in seminars, over the tables of the university commons, in smoke-filled dormitory rooms. There were those who felt that there could be no such thing as a science of sociology, that the sociologist should be content to try to give meaning to the history of society. There

were others who conceded that a scientific approach to society was possible, but felt empirical studies incapable of control, could contribute little to such a science, and that its tools could be only those of logical process. The majority, however, fired with Park's and Burgess's enthusiasm, believed that a science of sociology must grow out of empirical studies of the social behavior of the community, and that methodology and techniques for such studies could be developed.

The establishment, in 1922, of the Community Research Fund, under a grant from the Laura Spelman Rockefeller Memorial, made possible the first comprehensive program of sociological research into the behavior of the community. This research has yielded, and continues to yield, data and generalizations that amply justify Park's and Burgess's belief in a scientific sociology, and have made a significant contribution to such a sociology.¹ It would seem fair to say that Park and Burgess, during this decade at the University of Chicago, played a role in the development of modern sociology comparable to that played earlier by G. Stanley Hall, at Clark University, in the development of modern psychology. As one attempts to evaluate the data and generalizations contributed to scientific sociology by their students, in the light of the trends of our contemporary society, one regrets, however, that these students do not reflect in their research more of the respect for the mind itself as a tool for arriving at truth, more of the recognition of the necessity of a valid philosophy through which truth may become socially fruitful, that Albion Small strove to give them.²

It was natural, and inevitable, that as sociologists turned from the

¹ Nels Anderson, *The Hobo*; Frederic M. Thrasher, *The Gang*; Louis Wirth, *The Ghetto*; Ernest Mower, *Family Disorganization*, and his subsequent studies of the family; Harvey Zorbaugh, *The Gold Coast and the Slum*; Clifford Shaw, Frederick Zorbaugh, Henry McKay, and Leonard Cottrell, *Delinquency Areas*, and Shaw's subsequent studies from the Behavior Research Fund and the Institute of Juvenile Research; Hiller, *The Strike*; Walter Reckless, *The Natural History of Vice*; Ruth S. Cavan, *Suicide*; Herbert Blumer, *Movies and Conduct*; Robert Faris and H. Warren Dunham, *Mental Disorders in Urban Areas*; to name only a few of these studies.

² Louis Wirth is a notable exception, in the writer's opinion, to this statement.

study of documents to the study of collective behavior of men, many sociologists should become particularly interested in the social aspects of the individual's behavior—the attitudes through which individual and group become part of a pattern, the effect of group relationship upon the individual's behavior, the effect of the individual upon the group's behavior, the mechanisms of interaction involved. This interest has loomed large in the research of the Chicago "school." It has led to much research on the borderland between sociology and psychology. If one chooses to call this field of research social psychology, it is evident that sociology has made significant contributions to a scientific social psychology.

This contribution has by no means been confined to the work of the Chicago "school." All over the country, younger sociologists, through varying backgrounds of experience, were fired with the belief that the scientific method is applicable to the study of social behavior, were carrying their research into the community, were, many of them, focusing their interest increasingly upon the relationship of group and individual. No more significant contribution has been made in this area of research—to mention but one example—than the Lynds' *Middletown* and *Middletown in Transition*.

Many sociologists interested in this field felt the need for access to clinical situations, in which their concepts and hypotheses as to the relation of the group and the individual might be tested, modified, validated. Moreover, many sociologists felt that sociology had significant contributions to make in the readjustment of the individual to social living.

Sociologists found, however, that the psychiatrist, social worker, and psychologist had staked out the clinical field as their own, and gave scant welcome to the sociologist, scant consideration to his ideas. Sociologists were perhaps largely to blame for this situation. In their newly acquired worship of objectivity they were intolerant of many of the values and procedures of the clinic and social agency. Indeed, many younger sociologists developed, with reference to the

psychiatrist, psychologist, and social worker, a conflict group psychology which was a denial of the objectivity they proclaimed.

The result was that sociologists began to talk of "sociological" clinics. A "sociological" clinic was to be a clinic which the sociologist controlled, or which a particularly brash young sociologist might undertake on his own. Clifford Shaw and the writer organized two such "sociological" clinics in Chicago in 1924—the Lower North and South Side Child Guidance Clinics, since affiliated with the Institute for Juvenile Research. May it be said, Shaw and the writer were not brash enough to undertake to be clinics by themselves. Psychiatrists, psychologists, and social workers completed the staff. But these clinics were to be directed by sociologists, to serve as laboratories for validating sociological hypotheses as to individual adjustment and behavior.

In 1926 the writer was offered the opportunity of becoming a member of the faculty of the School of Education of New York University, where the department of educational sociology was projecting the establishment of a "sociological" clinic. The writer came to New York, eager to grasp the opportunity—sure that a clinic, sociologically oriented and directed, emphasizing research, would contribute much to the educational work of the sociology department—through testing hypotheses, developing teaching materials, affording field experience for students.

The writer vividly remembers a conversation, shortly before the clinic began its work, in which Walter Pettit of the New York School of Social Work participated. After considerable discussion and debate, Walter Pettit remarked, "You still have a lot to learn." The writer had a lot to learn. Some of the things ten years' experience with this clinic have taught him as to the role of a clinic in the work of a department of sociology are worth mentioning here.

In the first place, one cannot work long in a clinical situation before one is forced to accept the fact that a clinic's first responsibility is service to its clients. Research must wait upon service. This means

that, unless the clinic has a very large case load, the materials through which given hypotheses may be tested are slow in accumulating. Moreover, cases that seem to offer opportunities for critical experiments often cannot be so utilized if the clinician accepts his responsibility to the client. As a result, the clinical situation bears the fruit of research but slowly. To those impatient for immediate results, the clinic proves to be a disappointing laboratory.

Again, the clinic affords but a restricted opportunity for field experience for students of sociology. Responsibility of the clinic to the client stands in the way. Untrained students, even under supervision, cannot enter into relationship with clients with any hope of a constructive outcome for the client. And the results may be disastrous to the client.

On the other hand, out of clinical work there are constantly arising problems that give rise to hypotheses for legitimate sociological research. For example, the finding in our own clinic that problems revolving about conflicts over the child's eating are referred predominantly from Jewish families. Whatever psychiatric mechanisms determine the way the Jewish mother may use the food patterns of her culture, there is obviously a sociological factor involved that is not only of theoretical significance, but of practical importance in approaching and dealing with such problems.

Many other illustrations might be given. Moreover, the ramifications of many of these problems may be formulated for research by able graduate students. Considerable such research has already grown out of clinically derived hypotheses as to factors involved in children's adjustment to the school.⁸

It would seem hardly necessary to warn sociologists interested in clinical research that a wholly "sociological" clinic is a fruitless

⁸ Julius Yourman, "Children Identified by Their Teachers as Problems," *The Journal of Educational Sociology*, February 1932, pp. 334-343; Louise Snyder, "The Problem Child in the Jersey City Elementary Schools," *ibid.*, February 1934, pp. 343-352; Mildred Fisher, "Measured Differences Between Problem and Nonproblem Children in a Public-School System," *ibid.*, February 1934, pp. 353-362.

undertaking. Without the meeting of minds trained not only in sociology, but as well in medicine, psychiatry, psychology, and case work, too many factors are unrecognized or unanalyzed to make case records of research value.

Such a meeting of minds is increasingly possible as sociology, psychiatry, case work, and medicine draw more closely together in understanding. The work of the Institute for Juvenile Research, the Hanover Conferences, the Coloquia on Personality of joint committees of the American Psychiatric Association and the American Sociological Society, the Institute of Human Relations at Yale are significant symptoms of this meeting of minds. The recent publication by Plant, a psychiatrist, of *Personality and the Cultural Pattern*, and by Faris and Dunham, sociologists, of *Mental Disorders in Urban Areas* vividly illustrate the promise of this meeting of minds, through achieving a more fundamental understanding of human behavior, to increase and validate the hypotheses of all the behavior sciences concerned, including those of sociology.

There is no question that clinical experience greatly enriches the sociologist's teaching material. In this respect, the department of educational sociology clinic has paid tremendous dividends, greatly increasing the validity and vitality of the teaching of those who have participated in its work. The case records of every sociologically oriented clinic are a mine of living material on the role of social and cultural factors in shaping the individual personality and in conditioning its adjustment, on the role of sociological factors in conflict and maladjustment, on the interaction of personalities in the family, gang, school, and community, on the processes that give rise to the many types of antisocial behavior, on the effect of various patterns of group life upon members of the group. Such material aids greatly the teacher's attempt to lead the student to apply his theoretical concepts to the analysis of the social behavior of the community.

The writer believes, then, as a result of his experience, that the

clinic has much to contribute to sociological theory. The clinic, further, serves greatly to enrich the work of a department of sociology. To achieve these results a clinic need not, however, be the proprietary interest of a sociology department itself. As the behavior sciences draw closer together, sociology departments will increasingly find their clinical needs met by participation in general university clinics, and in the work of clinics and other social agencies in the community.

RESEARCH AND INSTRUCTION IN SOCIAL BACKGROUNDS OF THE SCHOOL CHILD

FREDERIC M. THRASHER

The fundamental purpose of research and instruction in the social backgrounds of the school child in the department of educational sociology at New York University has been to apply the principles of sociology in the field of education and to explore those relationships between sociology and education which give promise of improving educational theory and practice. This purpose rests upon the assumption that education, as an applied science and an art, has as one of its basic foundations a scientific understanding of social phenomena and social needs,¹ and that no education can be effective which does not take into consideration the social processes and the numerous social relationships which exist not only within the school situation but also between school and community and between the school and the innumerable social influences and institutions which constitute the complex of modern life.

This application of sociology to education has been accomplished by means of three related types of work which have been carried on during the past decade (1928 to 1938) in the department of educational sociology.

First, the basic task during these ten years has been that of instruction; that is, the effective presentation of the scientific data and the basic principles of sociology to prospective and in-service teachers and administrators, as well as to social workers and others who may be regarded as educators although they are not in the public-school field. The interpretation of sociological data and principles to these groups and the application of these data and principles to their problems have been the major functions of instruction, which

¹ See Frederic M. Thrasher, "The Sociological Approach to Educational Problems," *The Journal of Educational Sociology*, IX:8 (April 1936), pp. 469-484.

have been accomplished through the teaching of a variety of courses in addition to the elementary course in educational sociology.

Closely related to instruction has been the second phase of the work, a program of research, largely in the field of community organization and the social backgrounds of the school and the school child. These varied studies have not only provided rich illustrative materials for teaching, but also have enabled students, graduate and undergraduate, to participate in the scientific processes involved in gathering and interpreting facts. The researches, moreover, have made a contribution to the solution of sociological problems lying within the field of education or, to put it another way, of educational problems lying within the field of sociology.

The third phase of the program has been to carry the principles discussed in class and the results of the researches into the community. This has been accomplished through the organization of, and participation in, a variety of practical projects and programs through which it has been possible to relate the classroom teaching and the researches to real problems and actual activities in the community—local, regional, and national. Both the researches and the community projects have contributed valuable materials to classroom teaching and have served to vitalize such teaching and make it real. In addition these practical projects have been of distinct benefit to the community, through the application of sociological principles to practical programs outside the University. This outcome has been the result of a belief that a university should not represent a cloistered shelter for students who remain aloof from the stream of life, but that it should participate in community life and make a contribution where possible to the solution of community problems.

In order to present each of these three phases of the program briefly and yet completely, each one of them will be discussed separately.

I. INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAM

In addition to the elementary course, the courses related to social backgrounds in the department of educational sociology at New York University and those given by visiting lecturers have taken four different trends.

The first group of courses has dealt with the social background of the school child in an effort to present scientifically the social influences important to the development of the child both at school and outside of school hours and to explain their relationship to school problems.² This group of courses has included the general course, *The Social Background of the School Child* (120.57,58), which has dealt with the nature of these social influences and the ways in which they affect the child and condition his education; the types of these influences and their various characteristics. This course has included a discussion of informal education; play groups and gangs; the role of private, public, and commercialized recreation including the child's reading, radio listening, and motion-picture experience; the effect of candy stores, poolrooms, and similar institutions; and the influence of the various cultural and nationality backgrounds of immigrant groups.

A specialized course on the motion picture has been developed partly as a result of the Payne Fund Studies in which the department of educational sociology participated and partly because of the growing realization that the motion picture is one of the most important educational influences of modern times.³ Other and related courses which are given by outside lecturers deal with the social backgrounds of the Italian school child, given by Mr. Leonard Covello, principal of the Benjamin Franklin High School, New York City,

² See Frederic M. Thrasher, "Social Backgrounds and Education," *The Journal of Educational Sociology*, I:2 (October 1927), pp. 69-76; and "Social Backgrounds and Informal Education," *ibid.*, VII:8 (April 1934), pp. 470-485.

³ See special issues of *The Journal of Educational Sociology* devoted to the relation of the motion picture to education, X:3 (November 1936); XI:3 (November 1937); and XII:3 (November 1938).

and a course on intercultural education given by Mrs. Rachel Davis-DuBois, director of the Service Bureau for Intercultural Education, New York City.

A second group of courses has been developed about the subject of juvenile delinquency and crime prevention. The general course in this field is *Juvenile Delinquency and Crime Prevention* (120.59,60 and 220.59,60). Its purpose is to present a careful analysis of the nature, extent, causes, treatment, and prevention of truancy, juvenile delinquency, and similar behavior difficulties which constitute such important problems for the school.

A related course has been introduced on *The Institutional Treatment of the Problem Child* (120.173,174), given by Dr. Herbert D. Williams, lecturer on education. The purpose of this course is to present a study of the methods of dealing with problem children and juvenile delinquents in institutions.

A third group of courses has been developed in the field of community organization and coördination. The basic course on this subject is *The Community: Organization and Coördination* (120.65,66). It is designed to present the fundamentals of community growth, processes, and structures and the principles of community organization and coördination.

More specialized courses in this field are those given by Mr. Leonard Covello, *School Community Coördination in the Immigrant Community* (120.203,204), and by Dr. Julius B. Maller, *Sociology of the Community in Relation to Education* (120.209,210).

The fourth and final group of courses has had to do with research. From time to time an introductory course in this field has been given, originally entitled *An Introduction to Research*. At present graduate courses are given under the captions *Survey Techniques* (220.171) and *Techniques of the Case Study* (220.172). These courses are an introduction to the field of research in educational sociology and are specifically helpful to students in teaching them how to organize and develop research projects.

The more advanced course dealing with research techniques is Advanced Research in Social and Community Backgrounds (320.5,6) which affords students an opportunity to work on research problems under supervision while at the same time acquiring further knowledge of research procedures and techniques through supervised reading and additional research experience. This work is facilitated by a research laboratory in social backgrounds of the school child and a community clinic (located in Room 75, South Building, 41 West Fourth Street, Washington Square).

2. RESEARCH PROGRAM

Closely related to the instructional program in social backgrounds has been the program of research, which includes a group of major projects carried on with the aid of a staff either employed through the utilization of special funds donated to the University or made available to the University through the various relief programs which have been operating since 1930. Furthermore, a large number of less extensive research projects have been undertaken by graduate and undergraduate students working in the department.

a) The Boys' Club Study and Related Researches

One of the most important social tasks of the present day is to measure scientifically the outcomes of educational and other human institutions—one of the most difficult of all research problems. A good example of the scientific evaluation of an educational institution, using the methods of educational sociology, was the Boys' Club Study of New York University completed in October 1935.⁴

The following is a brief account of the nature and methods of the Boys' Club Study:

⁴ A complete account of the scientific methods employed in this study is contained in the September 1932 issue of *The Journal of Educational Sociology*, VI:1, pp. 1-64. A summary of the results of the Boys' Club Study was published in the *American Journal of Sociology*, XLII:1 (July 1936), pp. 66-80. This summary was reprinted and widely distributed among educational and social-work institutions in the United States.

The Boys' Club Study was initiated in 1928 to make a scientific evaluation of the character-building and delinquency-preventing results of a large boys' club, newly opened in one of the crime-breeding areas of New York City. Financed by a gift of \$37,500 from the Bureau of Social Hygiene, the study undertook to measure the influence of this club over a period of four club years from 1927 to 1931, utilizing a combination of the descriptive, ecological, statistical, and case-study methods with several innovations in research techniques including particularly the use of the superior boy as an observer and reporter.⁵

This research involved a complete study of the Boys' Club community covering the basic social facts of the area and the conditions related to delinquency and its propagation as well as the wholesome influences affecting boys in this district. It also involved a complete descriptive and statistical study of the club itself. These phases of the investigation yielded the necessary background for the evaluation of the club as a delinquency-preventive agency, which was accomplished through a study of the membership of the club in comparison with nonmembers, membership turnover, case studies of delinquents within and without the club, and a comparative statistical analysis of delinquency in the club and in the community.⁶

A related research project which is continuing is a sociological study of the Madison Square Boys' Club with a view to presenting a descriptive picture of the functions and services of the Club as an educational or character-building institution. This study has been financed by Mrs. Ida M. Bodman with a gift of \$1,200.00.

Using the East Harlem Boys' Club Study as a guide, Edward J. Lesser has made an investigation of the Good Will (Boys') Club of Hartford, Connecticut, with similar findings.⁷

In connection with the East Harlem Boys' Club Study a series of researches were made chiefly in the East Harlem area including a sociological study of a local library by Dr. Bertha E. Hirshstein; a research into the social antecedents of a slum by Dr. Nels Anderson;

⁵For an account of the superior boy technique, see Kimball Young, *Social Attitudes* (New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1931), pp. 236-265.

⁶*The Journal of Educational Sociology*, IX:8 (April 1936), pp. 471-472.

⁷See Edward J. Lesser, "A Boys' Club Study: The Good Will Club of Hartford, Connecticut," *The Journal of Educational Sociology*, XII:2 (October 1938), pp. 87-93.

a study of the life and work of the churches in this interstitial area by Dr. May Case Marsh; an investigation of the Boy Scout movement in East Harlem by Dr. Margaret E. Tilley; a study of the social role of the settlement houses of the area by Miss Caroline Leonard; an investigation of a girls' club made by Miss Annette Perkins; a study of the Puerto Ricans in the district by a WPA group; and an investigation of the case study as a method of research by Dr. R. L. Whitley.

Growing out of the East Harlem Boys' Club Study and still continuing at the present time is an extensive research into immigrant heritages, community problems, and school-community relations in the East Harlem area carried on by Leonard Covello. One of the results of the Boys' Club Study, in which Mr. Covello participated, was the establishment in East Harlem of a new high school known as the Benjamin Franklin High School for which more than \$2,000,000 has recently been appropriated to erect a new building. This high school embodies an application of the principles presented in the social backgrounds and community courses in educational sociology at New York University.*

In connection with the Boys' Club Study a statistical-ecological study of juvenile delinquency in Manhattan was undertaken by Dr. John E. Jacobi. Using an ecological method Dr. Jacobi studied the delinquency rates for 1925, 1927, and 1930. His results have been used not only in the Department's local studies, but also by the New York State Education Department.

The results of the Boys' Club Study in East Harlem, as published in the *American Journal of Sociology* and reprinted from that periodical and as made available also in manuscript form in the office of the Study, have been used by many organizations working

* The sociological program of the Benjamin Franklin High School and the social studies centering there have been recorded by Mr. Covello in a book, *The Community School*, edited by Samuel Everett in Chapter V, "The School as the Center of Community Life in an Immigrant Area," pp. 125-164. Published by Appleton-Century Company, New York, 1937, and in *The Journal of Educational Sociology*, IX:6 (February 1936), pp. 331-347.

in the area, including the East Harlem Council of Social Agencies, the East Harlem Division of the Juvenile Aid Bureau, the Benjamin Franklin High School, the East Harlem Girls' Club, the Housing Study Guild, the Young Women's Christian Association, the Jewish Welfare Board, and others. The results of the study have also been presented orally to a number of committees and conferences of agencies in the area of study including the staffs of the Crime Prevention Bureau, the Benjamin Franklin High School, and all the East Harlem Social Agencies in conference, and conferences of parents at the Union Settlement and the East Harlem Girls' Club. As a result of this study a crime-prevention program, one of the first to embody the principles of coördination of preventive agencies now being extensively developed throughout the country, was prepared for the East Harlem Council of Social Agencies. As a result of the Boys' Club Study, also, the Boys' Club of New York has made changes in its program in order to incorporate suggestions and recommendations of the Study.

b) The Housing and Delinquency Study

A second study of major importance, which grew out of the East Harlem Boys' Club research, was the investigation of the relation of "bad" housing to juvenile delinquency. This study was completed under the supervision of Abraham Goldfeld, chairman of the committee on housing of the National Association of Social Workers and chairman of the Housing Division of the Welfare Council of New York City.

The study was begun at the Washington Square Center of New York University, but as the field work developed it was necessary to secure office space in the area of study in order to take care of the large staff of WPA workers who were engaged in gathering the raw data. This office was furnished gratis by the Heckscher Foundation and additional financing was provided by the Lavanburg Homes Foundation. The study covered an area occupied by about 300,000

people and involved interviewing and filling out schedules for 30,000 families.

The results of this study were particularly interesting in that they showed little correlation between juvenile delinquency and the physical aspects of housing.

c) The Lower West Side Research and Other Community Studies

A third major research was the Lower West Side Study and its related investigations. These researches, which were carried on for several years in coöperation with the Council of Lower West Side Social Agencies, included first of all a basic community case study under the supervision of Dr. C. G. Swanson, an instructor in the department of educational sociology. The area covered was from 14th Street to the Battery and from West Broadway to the Hudson River. Many university students, graduate and undergraduate, participated in this group of studies. A research staff was provided by the Emergency Relief Bureau numbering from ten to thirty workers.

Dr. Swanson's phase of the study was undertaken as a means of investigating the social backgrounds of education in an urban area presenting a wide variety of forms of social organizations. The purpose of the study was to show the social backgrounds in which education must function in a metropolitan city, to provide detailed knowledge for local use regarding the area, and to supplement data in the general field of urban sociology.

Other phases of the Lower West Side project are as follows:

(1) *Leisure-Time Study* of Lower West Side school children conducted by Dr. Reginald Robinson.* This was an intensive study of more than 1,200 children revealing the details as to how they spend their leisure time and as to their recreational needs.

* A complete account of this study is contained in *The Journal of Educational Sociology*, IX:8 (April 1936), pp. 484-494.

(2) *Experimental Motion-Picture Program and Study*. This was a part of the Motion Picture Study discussed later.

(3) *Child Accounting*. Analysis of the school census data on the Lower West Side to determine the needs and social relationships of children of the area. This was a part of a method of complete child accounting evolved for this area which included family visitation and interviews and special studies of children and parents of individual schools as well as intensive studies of critical blocks.

(4) *Housing Study*. A complete house-to-house study of housing conditions and development of block maps.

(5) *Recreational Studies by Miss Rosalee Venable*. Studies of membership lists of recreational agencies to determine proportions and identities of children served and children missed. Correlation of these data on block-by-block basis.

(6) *Juvenile Delinquency Study*. Statistical study of Children's Court Cases, Crime Prevention Bureau cases, adult arrests, etc., to determine concentrations of delinquent influences. Case studies of Children's Court cases. These studies provide further materials on the origins and causes of crime.

(7) *Social Agency Study*. A complete study of the social organization of the Lower West Side showed the types of agencies, groups, and institutions and how they function with regard to each other.

That these researches did not end in sterile reports left to gather dust on the office shelves of the University is indicated by the wide use made and still being made of their findings. In addition to their use in teaching and training students in research and community organization with special reference to educational problems, the individual social agencies of the area have used the data and conclusions for their own purposes. For example, a subcommittee on community planning headed by Mrs. Mary K. Simkhovitch and subsidiary to the Mayor's planning committee made extensive use of the data. The Council of Social Agencies used the results in planning its work; three examples may be given. The Parent Education Committee organized a new parents' association on the basis of data gathered in the research program; the New Facilities Committee

used the maps and statistics to plan for the recreational development of the district and eventually with the coöperation of the Park Department were able to secure the conversion of city-owned vacant lots into playgrounds; and the Executive Committee of the Leisure Time Conference used the research results in the development of the play-street project which cared for 1,000 children each day during the summer months and which eventually was taken over by the City.

In addition to the community studies of the Upper East Side made in connection with the Boys' Club Study and of the Lower West Side, a series of community studies of varying degrees of elaborateness were carried on in coöperation with the department of educational sociology and under the immediate direction of graduate students working for advanced degrees.

Dr. John F. Fox, Jr., recreation director of Milburn, New Jersey,¹⁰ made a community study of that city, which included an investigation of how children of the community spend their leisure time. In this way Dr. Fox was able to determine the influences playing upon school children, the significant differences caused by sex and age, and the influence of sociological factors such as nationality, socioeconomic status, home duties, grade in school, and religion in the child's choice of leisure activities. The findings of this study were used in the development of an integrated, well-rounded school and community leisure-time program.

A somewhat similar study was made by Dr. Harry Arthur Wann, superintendent of schools, Madison, New Jersey.¹¹ His study included a series of sociological maps which were found to be invaluable in the proper location of new school facilities. The findings of

¹⁰ John F. Fox, Jr., "Leisure-Time Backgrounds in a Suburban Community," *The Journal of Educational Sociology*, VII:8 (April 1934), pp. 493-504.

¹¹ Harry Arthur Wann, "Social Planning in a Community," *The Journal of Educational Sociology*, IX:8 (April 1936), pp. 494-509; and S. E. Witchell, "Community Organization in Madison, New Jersey," *ibid.*, XI:2 (October 1937), pp. 97-106.

Dr. Wann's study were used as a basis for the development of the Community Planning Council which has met with success and has eventuated in a permanent council for the whole County (Morris County, New Jersey).

Another similar study was made by Dr. John L. Hopkins, superintendent of schools, Hastings-on-Hudson, New York. The basic purpose of this study was to discover the elements in a suburban community basic to the efficiency of secondary education and to apply this knowledge in making an improved educational program for this community. The findings of the study were used in improving the school system and as a basis for the development of a community service council which has made many changes in the social life of the community.¹²

A community study, made by George Shattuck, high-school principal, Darien, Connecticut, was undertaken with the purpose of improving the educational system and developing more satisfactory community relationships.

Another community study which has an interesting relationship to the work at New York University is that made in Paterson, N. J., under the direction of Nell B. Doremus, a graduate student and an officer of the Paterson Y.W.C.A. In 1934 Miss Doremus was given a copy of the April 1934 issue of *THE JOURNAL* by a member of the National Board of the Y.W.C.A. who was taking courses in the department. She read an article on "Social Backgrounds and Informal Education" and decided that "every word of it applied to Paterson." The result was that she took several courses, learned how to study her own community, and made the study in question. She describes the results of her study as follows:

You may be curious as to the results of this study and of just what practical value it was. First, we looked squarely at our community and saw it

¹² Herman Robert Otness, "The School and the Hastings Community Service Council," *The Journal of Educational Sociology*, IX:6 (February 1936), pp. 347-354.

as a changing one, with the old Anglo-Saxon groups of thirty years ago greatly depleted and a present population in a state of flux, there being a constant movement out into the suburbs. Next we looked at our Association and saw the leadership groups as well as the program participants reflecting this change. Analysis of city financial resources led us to estimate future possibilities, and once for all we ended wishful thinking and realistically faced the next few years. This meant planning a program which would stress the unique field of the Y.W.C.A. as a group-work agency patterned on the major needs of women and girls in a community seventy-five per cent foreign-born and second-generation.²⁸

The director of a psychiatric clinic in Paterson has recently proposed the establishment of a sociological community clinic to co-operate with and supplement the psychiatric approach.

In addition to the studies described above there have been numerous less extensive studies of communities, social backgrounds, and related problems which have contributed to the broader vision of school people and the solution of sociological problems in the educational field.

d) The Development of Social Base Maps and Research Maps

Not the least important phase of the research program has been the development, growing out of the community studies, of a series of research and base maps, among the first of their kind in this country. The following maps have been published in a series:

- (1) East Harlem research and base map
- (2) East Harlem simplified base map
- (3) Lower West Side, New York, research and base map
- (4) Milburn, New Jersey, research and base map
- (5) Madison, New Jersey, research and base map
- (6) Hastings-on-Hudson, New York, research and base map
- (7) Darien, Connecticut, research and base map (in preparation)

²⁸ The relation of the department of educational sociology to this work in Paterson has been set forth in an article by Miss Doremus, "Paterson Makes Itself Over," *The Woman's Press*, December 1937, p. 530.

These maps have been used extensively by social agencies, business firms, and students.

c) Motion-Picture Research and Related Studies

Another major research project was the participation of the department of educational sociology in a study of the social and educational effects of the motion picture. This was an attempt to measure scientifically an informal educational influence of great social importance, combining the methods of the educational sociologist with those of the psychologist. The following is a brief account of this study in which the department's own project plays an important part since it deals with the role of the motion picture in an interstitial area in a large city. (The department's participation in the study was financed by a gift of \$6,000 from the Payne Fund.)

The Payne Fund Studies, undertaken under the auspices of the Motion Picture Research Council, were carried on by a group of research experts drawn from the fields of sociology, psychology, and education. Several universities coöperated in the undertaking, which organized a few basic studies designed when completed to throw light upon the following questions: What is the amount of knowledge gained and retained from motion pictures by children of various ages and what types of knowledge are most likely to be thus gained and retained? To what extent do motion pictures influence the conduct of children and youth either in desirable or undesirable directions particularly in regard to patterns of sex behavior? What effect do motion pictures have upon the social attitudes of children? What is the effect of motion pictures upon the health of children? To what extent do motion pictures affect the emotions of children and to what extent are these possible effects wholesome or harmful? What are the effects of current entertainment films upon the standards of American life? What is the content of current films? In what numbers do children of various ages attend commercial motion-picture theaters? What can be done to teach children to discriminate between good and poor motion pictures?

Most of these questions were rather definitely answered in the findings of the researches already alluded to. They showed in general the tremendous influence of motion pictures upon the information, attitudes, emo-

tions, and activities of children and indicated the importance of the consideration of these educational influences by the schools.¹⁴

3. PARTICIPATION IN PRACTICAL PROGRAMS

During the ten years from 1928 to 1938 the results of the researches and the applications of sociological principles in the field of education, formal and informal, have had many outcomes in practical community programs.

For almost ten years an instructor in the department was Chairman of the Council of Lower West Side Social Agencies. The extensive research program carried on in this area during this period was used in developing a program for the Council designed to co-ordinate the efforts of social agencies and to build new services and activities where needs were shown.¹⁵

The general purpose of this program was to develop a comprehensive systematic and integrated plan for the social services of the area in question. The major divisions of this Council included a leisure-time conference aimed primarily at crime prevention, a Lower West Side motion-picture council, a health committee, a law committee, a committee on relief practices, and a parent-education committee. This program had many practical outcomes including the organization of new parent associations and the development of a street play program which was eventually taken over by the City. When the new health district plan for the Lower West Side was developed, an instructor in the department was asked to serve as chairman of the Advisory Committee on Health of the Lower West Side Health District.

One of the major conclusions of the Boys' Club Study was that no one institution can prevent delinquency, but that such preventive

¹⁴ *The Journal of Educational Sociology*, IX:8 (April 1936), pp. 472-473. A complete account of the scientific methods employed in this study is contained in the December 1932 issue of *The Journal*, VI:4, pp. 193-258.

¹⁵ This program has been described in the book by Sheldon and Eleanor T. Glueck, *Preventing Crime* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1937), pp. 46-68.

programs must grow out of the coöperation and coördination of preventive agencies with a definite concentration of responsibility for crime prevention. This idea, which had been experimented with in the coördinating councils of Los Angeles, was fully stated in a paper given at the National Conference for Social Work in the annual meeting of the National Probation Association in Atlantic City in the spring of 1936.¹⁶ It was the basic idea underlying the development of the Lower West Side program.¹⁷ This illustrates how a conclusion growing out of research may affect a practical program.

Another outcome of the sociological approach to crime prevention, developed in the department of educational sociology, was the organization of the National Committee on Public Education for Crime Control, which, with the aid of a WPA staff, developed a series of projects in the field of public education including the preparation of articles for newspapers and magazines, the syndicating of newspaper articles by leading members of the Committee, the arrangement of radio programs, the provision of speakers for forums and conferences, and a contribution to public information for crime control through the coöperation of the March of Time in the production of an episode on crime prevention. This film, which was shown in some 7,000 theaters in this country and England to about 30,000,000 people, has been made available on 16 mm. stock and used by welfare agencies in their drives to raise money for preventive work.

Another project in the same field came with the development of the National Crime Prevention Institute organized by the late Rowland C. Sheldon. Two members of the department participated in this project, one as chairman of the executive committee, and the other as secretary and chairman of the committee set up to direct the policies of the organization.

As a result of the motion-picture courses and researches, the de-

¹⁶ This address is printed in the Yearbook of the National Probation Association for 1936 under the title "Reaching Crime Causes Through Coördinated Action," pp. 1-24.

¹⁷ See Glueck, *op. cit.*, pp. 46-68.

partment became interested in the possible application of the sociological approach to motion-picture problems. This resulted first in the organization of the Lower West Side Motion Picture Council which formulated a complete motion-picture program for a local community, which was published and widely distributed. When it became apparent that this local council was established on too narrow a base, the Metropolitan Motion Picture Council was organized, with an instructor in the department as technical director. Its function was twofold: (1) to act as a clearing house of information and (2) to afford an opportunity for conference and coöperation among all agencies in the metropolitan area outside the industry that were interested in motion pictures. The Council, which has been actively disseminating all types of motion-picture information for four years, includes in its membership about 200 key people in this field, publishes a monthly information bulletin, and maintains a Speakers' Bureau. It has, in addition to other committees, a production committee with a paid coöordinator which advises colleges, clubs, and other groups on the technical problems of motion pictures. It has a special committee of teachers that classifies and evaluates educational and documentary films.

In order to make the threefold approach—instruction, research, community action—effective, it has been necessary to develop and maintain numerous community contacts which have promoted the work of instruction and research in social backgrounds by bringing it into closer touch with community life and problems and carrying its point of view out in actual practice, as well as making available to the community the sociological principles developed in the classroom and the scientific data resulting from the researches.

By way of summary, it may be of significance to quote John Slawson, executive director of the Jewish Board of Guardians, New York City, and author of *The Delinquent Boy*, as indicating the reaction of an outside observer to this approach:

An interesting approach toward a realistic curriculum comes to mind,

although the illustration is from a university and not from a secondary school. At New York University, Professor Frederic M. Thrasher engages in a research study, with the assistance of students, on social needs in a given locality, constructs a course out of the content of the study, and brings back the research findings and class discussion into the community council of that locality for the purpose of action. Thus the cycle of research study and action is completed. Studies relating to the effect of motion picture on conduct, the effects of housing, leisure-time activities, and other studies of a similar nature contribute to the curriculum of the school as well as to the community-council action of the community.¹⁸

¹⁸ John Slawson, "The School and the Social Agency," *The Clearing House*, IX:7 (March 1935), p. 402.

A STATISTICAL SUMMARY OF ONE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

FRANCIS J. BROWN

The contributions of educational sociology to the larger field of education have been summarized in the previous articles. The data presented here could be duplicated in several institutions and evidence of the same growing interest and expanding field of educational sociology could be gathered from many colleges and universities. The data are presented in detail merely as a factual demonstration of the rapidly growing importance of this field of study.

The department of educational sociology at New York University was organized in the fall of 1922 at the time of the reorganization of the old School of Pedagogy by the establishment of the School of Education with an undergraduate division. During that first year, two courses were offered with an average enrollment each term of 34 students for the year. The following year, two new courses were added, and the average term enrollment in the department increased to 133. Graph 1 indicates the growth from these first years to June 1938.

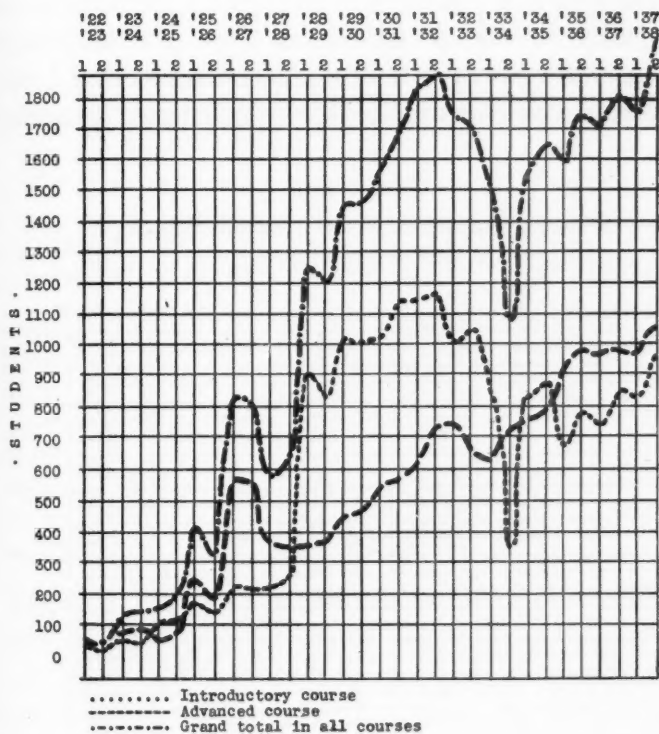
During this present term there is a total of 1,980 students enrolled in the department, of whom 950 are enrolled in the introductory course and 1,030 in the advanced courses. The consistent increase each year was only temporarily interrupted by the depression and even this decrease was proportionately less than the total decrease in the School of Education enrollment.

The number of courses has multiplied from the first offering to the present comprehensive program touching almost every phase of educational sociology. During the present term, 21 sections of the introductory course are offered, and 38 advanced courses, including the seminars and work offered exclusively on the graduate level.

Another significant fact to be drawn from an analysis of Graph 1 is the continual increase of registration in the advanced courses.

GRAPH I

THE NUMBER OF INDIVIDUAL STUDENTS REGISTERED IN THE DEPARTMENT OF
EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY FROM 1922-1938 BY YEARS AND SEMESTERS



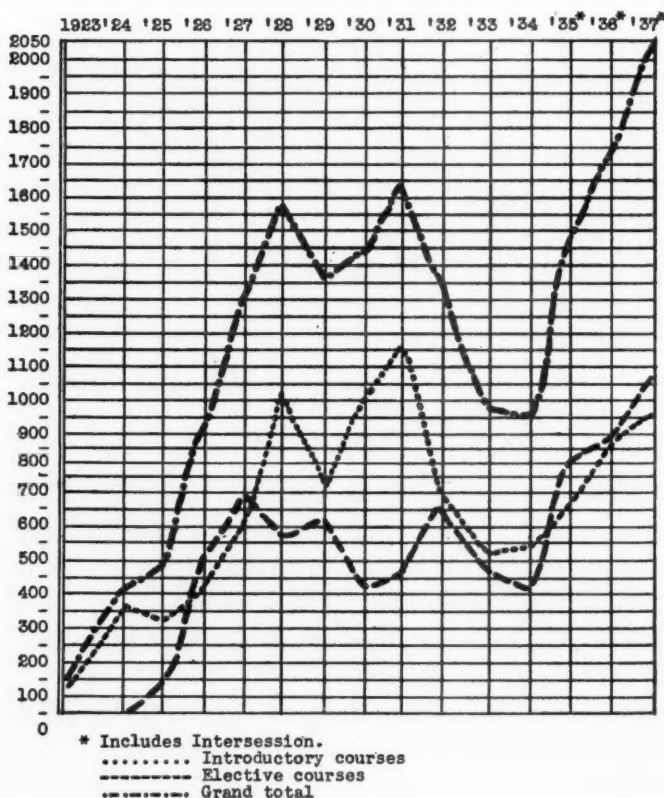
Since the first term 1935-1936, the number of students in advanced courses has exceeded those in the introductory course, until approximately 60 per cent of the departmental enrollment is now in the former. This continual increase in the registration of advanced courses reflects the increasing percentage of graduate students enrolled in educational sociology.

In 1924-1925, the department began to offer off-campus courses through what was then the Institute of Education and is now the Division of General Education. Although the growth in the field

has not been as great as that of the residence work, enrollments have increased from an average of 85 in the introductory sections and 36 in the advanced courses to 163 in the introductory sections and 472 in the advanced courses. The average total enrollment has increased from 121 in 1924-1925 to 635 in 1937-1938. Here, too, it is interesting to note that enrollment in advanced courses has shown a larger proportionate increase than that in the introductory sections.

GRAPH 2

NUMBER OF POINTS IN COURSES IN EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY
SUMMER SESSIONS 1923-1937



Courses in educational sociology were first offered in the summer session in 1923. During that first summer, there were but 62 students registered and all of them in the introductory course. During the summer of 1938, 738 students registered in courses in educational sociology, of whom 340 were in the introductory course and 398 in the advanced courses. Graph 2 summarizes the development for each year in terms of points of credit; in 1938 it was 2,738 points.

TABLE I

*Total Student Enrollments in Courses in Educational Sociology,
Summer Session and Academic Year 1922-1923 to 1937-1938*

1922-23	130	1930-31	4,691
1923-24	472	1931-32	4,654
1924-25	752	1932-33	4,103
1925-26	1,802	1933-34	3,347
1926-27	2,749	1934-35	3,973
1927-28	2,927	1935-36	4,934
1928-29	3,528	1936-37	5,372
1929-30	4,213	1937-38	5,855

The final summary of enrollment (table I) presents a record of achievement of which educational sociologists may well be proud. In 16 years in only one institution it has grown from the initiation of the subject to a field of study that during the last academic year (1937-1938) had a total student enrollment of 5,855.

The record of the growth of educational sociology in the United States is very much more than merely one of numbers. Faculty members and graduate students have conducted significant research studies, published books and innumerable magazine articles in their own fields, organized and developed the Educational Sociology Section of the American Sociological Society of which *THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY*, now in its twelfth year, is the official publication, and in many ways have made their influence felt on the campus, in the public schools, and in the community.

There are many problems still to be met if the gains of educational sociology are to be consolidated. More attention must be given to a clarification and delimitation of the field of educational sociology in its relation to other areas of research and instruction. It must find a middle course between being only a social philosophy of education and merely a sociological approach to schoolroom problems. Recognizing education in its broadest sense as the total social *milieu* of the individual, it must bring to a solution of these problems a distinctive point of view based upon scientific and cumulative research.

RESEARCH PROJECTS AND METHODS IN EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

In order that this section of THE JOURNAL may be of the greatest possible service, its readers are urged to send in at once to the editor of this department titles, and where possible descriptions, of current research projects now in process in educational sociology and also those projects in fields of interest kindred to educational sociology.

THE RESEARCH DIVISION OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

The Research Division of the National Education Association was organized in 1922.¹ During the intervening years the work of the Division has tended toward four classifications: (1) *research*—analytical, statistical, historical, and descriptive reports of professional problems; (2) *informational*—preparation of bibliographies, memoranda, and answers to special letters of inquiry; (3) *editorial and consultative*—revision, reorganization, and verification of manuscripts prepared for yearbooks, committee reports, etc.; and (4) *administrative*—planning and direction of various projects.

Research. Perhaps the most characteristic research reports of the Division are the issues of the *Research Bulletin*. Bulletins completed or in process for the current school year include: (1) Federal Support for Education (the issues and the facts); (2) Improving Social-Studies Instruction (what 1,800 classroom teachers think); (3) Population Trends and Their Educational Implications (growth, internal movement, occupations, etc., and the school questions raised thereby); (4) From High School to College (guidance procedures of 1,300 high schools and 400 colleges); (5) Why Schools Cost More (effects of purchasing power of school money, increased enrollments, and increased quality of school services).

For the current school year bulletins have been planned on the following topics: the professional status of teachers, safety education, the economic status of rural teachers, salaries paid in 1938-1939 in city systems, and teacher load in elementary and secondary schools.

Informational. Each year the Research Division answers some 5,000

¹ This statement is presented through the courtesy of Frank W. Hubbard, Associate Director, Research Division, National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington, D. C.

letters of inquiry. These are sent in by students, classroom teachers, parents, board members, principals, and superintendents. To do this work requires many hours of library searching, preparation of memoranda, and the compilation of bibliographies.

In coöperation with the Educational Research Service (a subscription service operated jointly with the American Association of School Administrators) the Research Division has prepared the following circulars during the school year 1937-1938: Levels of Training and Training Requirements for Teachers in 186 City School Systems; Questionnaire Studies Completed (an annotated list); Education in Lay Magazines (October, December, and February); Salary Schedules for Principals in 84 Cities Over 100,000 in Population; and Employment Status and Leaves of Absence for Teachers, 1937-1938.

Editorial and consultative. The Research Division of the National Education Association assists in the preparation of the departmental yearbooks of three departments: Department of Elementary School Principals, Department of Classroom Teachers, and American Association of School Administrators (formerly Department of Superintendence).

The 1938 yearbook of the Department of Elementary School Principals, *Newer Practices in Reading in the Elementary School*, contains chapters on: scope of the reading program, reading readiness, beginning reading, cultivation of appreciation and good taste, study reading in content fields, diagnostic and remedial reading, providing classroom materials, using libraries, school and class organization for better reading, and administering and supervising the reading program. The Editorial Committee includes: Chairman Maude McBroom, University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa; L. M. Fertsch, Austin, Texas; and Cecelia Galvin, Indianapolis, Indiana. The yearbook was distributed in September 1938. Dr. Richard R. Foster, assistant director of research, N.E.A. Research Division, is consultant on both the 1938 and 1939 volumes.

The Editorial Committee of the Department of Elementary School Principals has begun work on the 1939 yearbook dealing with the problem of enriching the curriculum for the elementary-school child. Manuscripts have been invited treating such topics as: the nature of curriculum enrichment, enriching content of courses, methods of teaching that vitalize learning, using community resources, measurement and guidance in relation to curriculum enrichment, vitalizing the curriculum under vari-

ous types of school organization, administrative aspects of enrichment, and research contributions to the problem of enrichment. Those interested in preparing materials for the yearbook are invited to write for a descriptive folder (Editorial Committee, Department of Elementary School Principals, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington, D. C.). The Committee for 1939 consists of Chairman L. M. Fertsch, Austin, Texas; Cecelia Galvin, Indianapolis, Indiana; and Jess S. Hudson, Tulsa, Oklahoma. The yearbook will be distributed in September 1939.

A joint committee of the Department of Classroom Teachers and the American Educational Research Association is preparing a yearbook on the implications of research for the classroom teacher. An attempt is being made to show teachers how the outcomes and implications of research may be turned to the improvement of instruction. Among the teaching areas included in the study are: safety, health, art, home economics, science, social studies, arithmetic, high-school mathematics, reading, handwriting, spelling, English, and foreign languages. Material will also be presented on the topics: aims of education, child development, the learning process, extracurricular activities, and the organization of classes and schools. One major section of the yearbook will be devoted to general helps for teachers on the interpretation and use of research in the classroom. The Committee consists of Mrs. Myrtle Hooper Dahl, chairman, Paul T. Rankin, Prudence Cutright, Hilda Maehling, Edna Greene, Robert Clark, Wilbur Raisner, and William S. Gray. According to present plans the yearbook will be available about the time of the winter meeting in 1939. Dr. Ivan A. Booker, assistant director of research, is working with the Committee on behalf of the N.E.A. Research Division.

The 1939 yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators (*Problems of the Small School System*) is under the chairmanship of Hobart Corning, superintendent of schools, Colorado Springs, Colorado. The Commission includes several competent authorities in university circles as well as administrators in small school systems. Areas of treatment in the volume include: the small community from a sociological angle, the unique opportunities of the small school system, lay and professional leadership, curriculum problems, interpretation of the schools, funding the program, management of expenditures, school plant and equipment, pupil guidance, and the professional status of superintendents in small school systems. The yearbook will be distributed in

February 1939. Research consultative assistance on this and the 1940 volume is being given by Dr. Frank W. Hubbard, associate director of research.

In 1940 the yearbook of the superintendents' department will be on the subject of safety education. The chairman of the Commission is Henry H. Hill, superintendent of schools, Lexington, Kentucky. Preliminary plans reveal that an effort will be made to call attention to some of the better instructional practises. Activities of nonschool groups will be examined critically. Sources of safety aids will be listed. It is hoped that the resulting handbook will increase and improve present school safety activities.

In addition to consultative research services extended to the departments of the Association the Research Division helps various committees with their assignments. Many of these reports were available in June 1938 although some will appear in the current school year. For the Tenure Committee a report has been issued summarizing court decisions in 1937. Two other reports for this Committee have to do with the effects of local board rules on tenure and the State legal status of teaching and five other professions. Questionnaire studies are being planned for the Committee on Academic Freedom and the Committee on International Relations. A summary of State retirement legislation in 1938-1939 has been made for the National Council on Teacher Retirement. Ten thousand blanks have been tabulated for the Committee on the Economic Status of the Rural Teacher. Explanatory work has been made for the committees on equal opportunity, credit unions, and coöperatives.

Administrative. The Research Division is called upon to do administrative research for the officers of the Association. Several studies have been made last year on such subjects as the factors influencing the Association's membership; the improvements in Negro education (in connection with the Harrison-Fletcher Bill for Federal aid); relationships with the World Federation of Education Associations; and the appeal of various types of articles in the *N.E.A. Journal*.

Funds provided through the Highway Education Board are being used to develop materials in the field of safety education. An extensive library of available literature has been prepared. Nearly 75 films on safety have been reviewed. Questionnaires have been tabulated from 17,000 classroom teachers and 2,000 superintendents of schools.

BOOK REVIEWS

Creative Teaching: Industrial Arts and Vocational Education, by F. THEODORE STRUCK. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1938, 623 pages, \$3.50.

Every beginning teacher in the fields of industrial arts and vocational education will want to read, mark, and inwardly digest the contents of this very comprehensive book. The volume represents an integration of the results of experiences in secondary schools with young people and adults interpreted in the light of philosophy of education, refinements in the art of teaching, and advances made in the sciences of education. After a brief introductory chapter which sets the goals and basic concepts of both industrial-arts education and vocational education, the author takes up one practical problem after another and presents, in clear-cut fashion, the best thought that has been expressed on these perplexing situations that are so apt to baffle beginning teachers. Problems of individual differences, personality traits, discipline, class management, learning, interest, right procedures, method, lesson planning, visual aids, socialized instruction, individualized teaching, tests and measurements are but a few of the items which the author presents. *Creative Teaching* should enjoy a wide adoption in the teacher-training institutions that prepare men and women for positions in the fields of industrial arts and vocational education.

Social Life and Personality, by E. S. BOGARDUS AND R. H. LEWIS. New York: Silver Burdett and Company, 1938, 581 pages.

This is a high-school textbook in sociology that places emphasis on the normal rather than upon the abnormal ways of social living. The central theme is the effect of social life upon personality. The student is helped to see how the individual is shaped and changed by the social environment in which he lives. The necessity for making adjustments to society is made clear.

The volume contains illustrations that are useful supplements. Each of these tells a story. Each is a problem calling for study.

The book impresses the reviewer as being a very valuable one for use in the upper high-school years. It is to be regretted, however, that the author did not do more with the psychological aspects of the subject.

Redirecting Teacher Education, by GOODWIN WATSON, DONALD P. COTTRELL, AND ESTHER M. LLOYD-JONES. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938, ix + 105 pages.

This book focuses attention sharply upon the social necessity for better teachers. Better selection of prospective teachers is presented as one of the necessary steps in effecting the desired improvement. There is a good treatment of the relation of undergraduate and graduate study and of preservice and in-service study. The authors wisely direct attention to the fact that merely increasing the amount of study in preparation for teaching without improving its quality will not effect improvement. This point cannot be emphasized too strongly. The viewpoint of the authors relative to needed curricular changes is progressive. This reviewer wishes that more attention had been given to the problems and obstacles involved in bringing about the reforms that are recommended. They failed to consider the basic difficulty which is that teacher education is cheap education both in our privately endowed institutions and in those that are publicly supported. We probably are getting about as much as we pay for in teacher education but we do not pay enough to produce high quality.

The Baltic States: Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, The Information Department of the Royal Institute of International Affairs. New York: Oxford University Press, 1938, 194 pages.

The Baltic countries are practically unknown to students of international affairs and comparative cultures. We must welcome, therefore, this, within deliberately restricted limits, concise and at the same time relatively comprehensive review of the historical background, political and economic development and structure, and foreign relations of Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania. The weakness of the study is a lack of a good bibliography, and particularly a failure to notice the existence of the *Baltic and Scandinavian Countries*.

Dictators and Democracies, by CALVIN B. HOOVER. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1937, 110 pages.

As one finishes reading the last of the five short essays which comprise this very readable little book, one feels caught in an invincible chain and

being dragged irresistibly toward an abyss. The author's convincing analysis of European policies changes our question from "If War Comes" to "How Soon." England is presented as the decisive factor in determining the answer. If the Lion grovels at the feet of Hitler and Mussolini, the latter will consider the time is right for further aggression; if he shows his teeth, they will strive even more speedily to strike before England's rearmament program can get under full swing.

While the movement of events has somewhat discredited the author's statement that this decision will be made in 1937, nor would the present writer be quite as certain that parliamentary government is doomed in Europe, he agrees with the general premise that a major conflict between totalitarian and democratic states is inevitable without unprecedented and consequently unlikely concessions of the latter to the former.

The Ejido, Mexico's Way Out, by EYLER N. SIMPSON. Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1937, 849 pages.

The term *ejido* means literally "the way out." In Spain the term was applied to the uncultivated lands held collectively and located on the outskirts (on the way out) of agrarian communities. The author has here used the term to apply not only to the communal lands granted or restored to the agrarian communities but also to the communities themselves.

Part I is devoted to an historical perspective of Mexico from pre-conquest days to the reforms of 1929-1933. Part II is a description of the *ejido* and its problems. The inclusion of farm-community case studies provides excellent illustrative data. In part III, the author envisions a new Mexico linked together in mutual understanding and coöperation, but with local autonomy for each *ejido* in which each works for the good of all. A dream? Perhaps, but no book on Mexico has been as searching in its analysis or presented from such a thorough understanding of the Mexican as this. The *ejido* may indeed be "the way out."

Those Foreigners, by WILLIAM SEABROOK. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1938, ix + 358 pages.

As a journalistic presentation of the idea of "cultural pluralism" in relation to the American Scandinavians, Italians, Germans, Poles, and

Russians, the work cannot be wholly excluded from the rapidly growing library in that field.

Apes, Men and Morons, by ERNEST ALBERT HOOTON. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1937, 295 pages.

In this unusual book, Dr. Hooton has presented biological data of social significance and has jettisoned this against a background of human accomplishments. His thesis is that through a lack of eugenic programs man has become a victim of social lag through a failure to apply to himself the principles of social telesis. While thoroughly scientific in its presentation, the author has employed a fascinating and interest-holding style, giving it a rare engaging quality seldom found in technical presentations. Furthermore, he approaches his problem from a positive angle and offers a constructive and corrective program for betterment. However, one wonders how, in a democracy such as ours, these programs can be enacted when most of our objectives seem to be the stabilization and maintenance of mediocrity.

A History of Europe, by FERDINAND SCHEVILL. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1938, xi + 819 pages.

The power struggle among the contentious states, accompanied by the social-economic development within each state as well as by a description of the cultural movement constituting the common possession of all the members of the European family from the Reformation to the present day, is tersely analyzed in this well-written, conscientious, and beautifully printed volume. A number of good maps, bibliographies, and thirty-two pages of halftone illustrations enhance the value of this textbook.

The Anatomy of Revolution, by CRANE BRINTON. New York: W. W. Norton and Company, 1938, 326 pages.

We welcome this modest but rather successful attempt to establish certain first approximations of uniformities in the course of four successful revolutions in modern states: the English revolution of the 1640's, the American revolution, the great French revolution, and the recent—or present—revolution in Russia. The study does not pretend to be a complete sociology of revolutions, and its conclusions are limited to these four

social movements. But there is no question that the generalizations offered by the author will be valid in the case of other revolutionary movements. The work is very readable, and the bibliographical appendix is valuable.

The Crisis of Democracy, by WILLIAM E. RAPPARD. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1938, xiii + 288 pages.

This collection of lectures, disclosing the inherent difficulties of democracy and the circumstances which have challenged it in many countries since the World War, will appeal particularly to those who do not despair of modern democracy and question, like the author, the solidity and the longevity of modern dictatorships.

My Drift into Rural Sociology, by CHARLES JOSIAH GALPIN. University, La.: Louisiana State University Press, 1938, 151 pages, \$1.00.

My Drift Into Rural Sociology is apparently the first in a proposed series of monographs by the Rural Sociological Society. It is entirely fitting that the first monograph should be the autobiography of such a distinguished man as Dr. Galpin. His interest in the problems of rural society has been instrumental in attracting to this field other students of social life. His activity has earned for him such recognition that he is looked upon as the father of rural sociology.

As one reads the book, one is impressed constantly with the fact that there are challenging fields for social research in every community. The book is inspiring for younger men upon whom rests the responsibility for doing the research necessary to develop the field Dr. Galpin has so well marked out.

Group Methods in Vocational Guidance, by LOUIS H. SOBEL AND JOSEPH SAMLER. New York: The Furrow Press, 1938, 111 pages.

As the authors state in their subtitle, this volume was organized with specific reference to the economic adjustment problems of Jewish youth, and was suggested by the many demands from community centers, Y's, settlement houses, and synagogue centers for concrete vocational-guidance materials and methods of value in group work. The authors are to be congratulated upon a very fine usable volume. They have drawn freely upon their own experiences and have amplified these by references to

standard texts in the field. The volume should be invaluable to a person who is just beginning his work as a group leader since he ordinarily would not be able to learn by experience the various techniques suggested by the author until after many years of work and after many disappointments. To one who has been in group work for some years the volume should still be valuable inasmuch as it should serve as a check upon his own procedures and might conceivably suggest to him techniques which he himself had not attempted to put into practice. The selected bibliography is well chosen and the annotations are good. The sample occupational outlines should serve as a foundation for an extension of such work for those fields not covered in this volume but desired by the members of a counselor's group. Finally, the community resources for vocational guidance suggested in the last chapter should help to orient the beginner in group work. The volume throughout is readable and carries out the promise of the authors.

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